

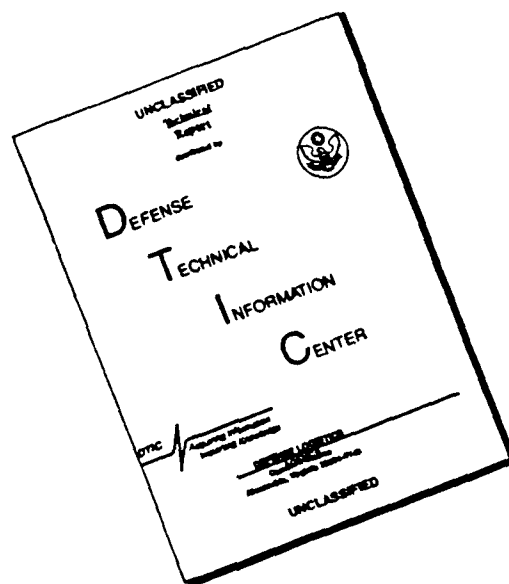
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TESTING A GENERAL MODEL ON THE FEAR OF CRIME

Name: Rex E. Ogle, Jr.
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Degree: Master of Science
Term Degree Awarded: Spring, 1993

This research employs the most current conceptual and multi-item measures to explore the differential effects of victimization, perceived community incivilities, and perceived crime seriousness in the neighborhood on fear of crime at two Air Force installations located in the Southeastern United States. Households were randomly selected and assigned from base resident rosters at Moody and Tyndall Air Force Bases (N=266), and administered the survey by telephone.

The Air Force bases proved a unique environment in which to conduct the research due to a younger population, the absence of unemployment and lower income earners, higher education, and lower perceived community incivilities and perceived crime seriousness in the neighborhood than are generally reported in fear of crime literature.

Despite these differences, sufficient variation existed to test the fear of crime model. The results indicate a positive association between conceptual variables and fear of crime. Those respondents who indicated a household member victimized during the past twelve months, perceived community incivility problems or perceived crime problems in their neighborhood, generally reported higher fear of crime than respondents who indicated the absence of these conditions.

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Rex E. Ogle, Jr., Master of Science
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**THE FLORIDA STATE UNIVERSITY
SCHOOL OF CRIMINOLOGY AND CRIMINAL JUSTICE**

TESTING A GENERAL MODEL ON THE FEAR OF CRIME

By

Rex E. Ogle, Jr.

**A Thesis submitted to the
Department of Criminology and Criminal Justice
in partial fulfillment of the
requirements for the degree of
Master of Science**

**Degree Awarded:
Spring Semester, 1993**

This work is dedicated in memory of my mother, June Ogle, who encouraged me to pursue a higher education and to do my best in all things. She died of cancer shortly after my acceptance to Florida State University.

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Rex E. Ogle, Jr., Master of Science
Florida State University, 1993
Major Professor: Gordon Waldo, Ph.D.

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

Anyone who watches television, reads newspapers and magazines, or discusses current events with others is routinely confronted with crime issues. Crime is not only newsworthy, it has also evolved into a major policy issue at the local, state, and national levels. Due to citizens' demands for a safer environment in which to live and raise their families, billions of taxpayer dollars are spent every year combating crime, incarcerating offenders, and funding the judicial system. Despite widespread expenditures and increased public awareness, the crime problem has not abated.

National media coverage of the Savings and Loan Scandal, the Kennedy and Tyson rape trials, the continuing "War Against Drugs", and prison overpopulation points to an unquestionable reality: no one is impervious to crime or its consequences. In fact, people remain subject to the degradation of victimization by an increasing array of crimes.

Durkheim (1933) once postulated that crime unifies a community by bringing people together in outrage against the violations of common norms. In the 1930s, Durkheim's assertion may have held true; but, today, empirical evidence indicates that crime and the consequences of crime drives people apart (Conklin, 1975; Riger et al., 1982).

A distinct consequence of crime is fear of victimization. Fear of criminal victimization in one's home, workplace, or neighborhood has become a fact of everyday life (Warr, 1987).

Fear remains an important social issue primarily due to its consequences for both individuals and communities. Liska et al., (1988: 828) describes the various consequences of this fear:

Social critics have linked fear to various deleterious psychological states, such as anxiety, mistrust, alienation, dissatisfaction with life, and even mental illness; to various patterns of social behavior, such as social isolation and buying firearms; and to various social states, such as the breakdown of social cohesion and solidarity.

At the individual level, fear causes some people to stay at home more often, and to spend money for additional locks, alarms, and lighting systems. More generally, fear reduces the level of interpersonal trust (Donnelly, 1988).

At the community level, fear leads to economic deterioration as reduced patronage causes businesses and stores to move elsewhere. As social solidarity erodes and is replaced by distrust, people may begin to move to what are perceived as safer neighborhoods (Donnelly, 1988).

Despite an obvious need to increase our knowledge on the fear of crime in order to address these social issues, research in the area remains exploratory. Previous researchers have disclosed a few concepts and evidence on the correlates of fear; but, there are no general theories and little cumulative knowledge in the area (Warr, 1987) to

guide future research (See Note 1).

This research examines the relationship between victimization experiences, perceived crime seriousness in the neighborhood, perceived community incivilities, social background variables and fear of crime. Using multi-item measures for fear of crime and victimization experiences, both the individual and community characteristics are studied. The novelty of this analysis comes from combining the latest theoretical and measurement advances in fear of crime research and applying them to a study of two Air Force communities.

A brief review of the literature addressing fear of crime research precedes any further explanation of the current research design. The review is presented to inform and prepare the reader for the methodology used in this analysis.

CHAPTER 2

A REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

An extensive review of the literature on the fear of crime discloses two widely accepted models--the victimization model and the social control model. Most fear of crime research stems, in one way or another, from one or both of these basic models.

Victimization Model

Lewis and Salem (1981) were among the first to study what is now referred to as the victimization model. They hypothesized that actual crime rates were the basic cause of fear of crime and all reactions to crime. Continuing research on the issue has proven this model to be limited in its explanatory ability, however, because "fear of crime is not always directly related to the objective crime rate or the probability of being victimized" (Gates and Rohe, 1987: 428).

In addressing this shortcoming, the victimization model was expanded to include three other concepts: perceived risk of victimization, vicarious victimization (such as knowing or hearing about a victim), and vulnerability to victimization (Baumer, 1978; Clemente and Kleiman, 1977; Greenberg et al., 1982, 1985; Jaycox, 1978; Skogan et al., 1981; Garofalo, 1981; Lewis and Maxfield, 1980; Taylor et al., 1979). Although these additions improved the explanatory power of the model,

it still remains essentially limited in explaining fear of crime (Gates and Rohe, 1987).

Social Control Model

Many researchers, on the other hand, suggest that an explanation of the fear of crime should take into account the social and physical characteristics of a neighborhood (Gates and Rohe, 1987). This premise, labeled the Social Control Model, theorizes that a breakdown of social control in an area is a major determinant of fear (Greenberg et al., 1985; Lewis and Salem, 1981; Podolefsky and DuBow, 1980; DuBow and Kaplan, 1979; and Skogan et al., 1982). A collapse in social control is most frequently associated with signs of incivility such as broken windows, litter, local vandalism, loitering, distribution of drugs and other observable social and physical problems (Gates and Rohe, 1987). Research examining this particular model reveals that fear of crime is not solely a reaction to the direct threat of personal harm; it is more a reaction to the subjective assessment (perception) of the moral and physical decline of an area (Cohn et al., 1979; and Greenberg and Rohe, 1984).

This model cannot fully explain fear of crime because it cannot be used to explain findings to support the victimization model. Specifically, it cannot explain the effects of crime and victimization on fear of crime (Gates and Rohe, 1987).

Combining Models

Ultimately, any current attempt to explain fear of crime must take into account both models, or at least factors from each, and must deal with any interaction effects between these factors. This was attempted by Gates and Rohe (1987), Ortega and Myles (1987), and Donnelly (1988) who developed strong support for combining the models.

Relationship Between Crime and Fear

At the most general level, the expected relationship between crime and fear of crime is straightforward: being criminally victimized will make one more cautious and more fearful (Smith and Hill, 1991a). There is considerable evidence supporting this view (see e.g., Balkin, 1979; Liska et al., 1988; Skogan, 1986), although others have found the strength of the relationship less significant (Hindelang et al., 1978; Garofalo, 1979; Braungart et al., 1980; Skogan and Maxfield, 1981; Smith and Huff, 1982) or nonexistent (Hill et al., 1985).

Moving beyond this general level, research has produced a greater understanding of how individual and structural characteristics mediate the relationship between victimization experience and fear of crime. For example, women and the elderly most often overestimate their actual risks or vulnerability to crime and exhibit higher fear levels than men or the young, displaying a degree of "social vulnerability" (Skogan and Maxfield, 1981). Skogan and Maxfield explain that

women and the elderly may be subject to a greater "social vulnerability" because of their greater physical vulnerability and lesser social and psychological resources for coping with crime (see also Lee, 1982; Ortega and Myles, 1987).

Patterns of Fear

Taylor and Hale (1986) present three significant points concerning the patterning of fear. First, rank ordering age-sex groups on fear levels is exactly opposite their respective ordering on victimization rates. For example, young males exhibit the least fear but are victimized at the highest rate; while elderly women are the most fearful but are the least victimized. Second, more people are fearful than are victimized, and fear levels are higher than should be warranted by actual crime rates, even assuming a liberal amount of unreported crime. Third, the pattern of fear across areas does not match the pattern of crime levels across the same areas. In other words, areas with higher crime rates do not always have residents who are more fearful.

Methodological Issues

The points cited above concerning fear of crime research serve as an impetus of debate among researchers. Ultimately, efforts to address these issues have been hampered by weaknesses in what have become accepted measurement practices. Expounding on this point, Smith and Hill (1991a) identify three specific measurement weaknesses: measuring fear of crime, fear of specific types of victimization, and

seriousness of victimization. Each of these problems are addressed in the following paragraphs.

Measuring Fear of Crime

The most common method of measuring fear of crime has been a dichotomous response to the National Opinion Research Center's (NORC) question, "Is there any area near your home--that is, within a mile or so--where you would be afraid to walk alone at night?" Lee (1982), Taylor and Hale (1986), Ferraro and LaGrange (1987) and Smith and Hill (1991a) contend the question is conceptually ambiguous and may not be a valid indicator of fear of crime. Thus, measuring fear using the NORC question may inflate estimates of fear among some groups (e.g., women) and may produce misleading results.

Measuring Fear of Specific Types of Victimization

A related problem, according to Smith and Hill, is the NORC question may be a more valid indicator of fear of personal victimization, versus property victimizations, than of crime more generally. They believe the NORC question more accurately measures personal victimizations which represents the types of imagined experiences the general public fears most, but fails to tap property victimizations, the most likely to occur. If this is the case, the measure would permit a bias toward personal victimization while limiting an assessment of the unique effects of nonpersonal crimes.

Measuring Seriousness of Victimization Experiences

Smith and Hill's third issue concerns the utility of

developing scales to reflect the seriousness of victimization. In the literature, victimization experiences are typically deduced by a simple count of the number of crime experiences. The sum of these experiences are then used as an index of the degree and seriousness of prior victimization. But, as Smith and Hill point out (see also Warr, 1987), it is very reasonable to expect a person to experience differing levels of fear depending on the crime. For example, a rape should cause a greater degree of fear in a person than several thefts from the yard.

In testing this view, Smith and Hill assigned weights to the frequency of victimization in a way that would distinguish serious from nonserious crimes in a sample of 3,109 respondents. After analyzing the data, they concluded that the relative infrequency of personal victimizations among the sample made these measurements insufficient.

Smith and Hill (1991b), in a second publication, analyzed the same data, but grouped (sub-scaled) victimization into three dummy variables: property victimization, personal victimization, and combination victim. They determined that these composite measures were more reliable.

Correlates of Fear

An indepth coverage on the etiology of fear of crime would be incomplete without citing six variables that have been found to correlate significantly with fear of crime. They are: age which is positively related to fear (Baumer, 1978,

1985; Clark and Lewis, 1982; Kennedy and Silverman, 1984; Giles-Sims, 1984; Braungart et al., 1980; Clemente and Kleiman, 1976; Garofalo, 1977; Cook and Cook, 1976; Ollenburger, 1981; Lee, 1982; Lebowitz, 1975; Yin, 1980, 1985; Ortega and Myles, 1987; and Donnelly, 1988); race, whites are generally more fearful than nonwhites (Giles-Sims, 1984; Braungart et al., 1980; Clemente and Kleiman, 1976; Garofalo, 1977; Cook and Cook, 1976; Ollenburger, 1981; Lee, 1982; Lebowitz, 1975; Yin, 1980, 1985; Baumer, 1978, 1985; Clark and Lewis, 1982; Kennedy and Silverman, 1984; Liska et al., 1988; and Donnelly, 1988); gender, females are generally more fearful than males (Giles-Sims, 1984; Braungart et al., 1980; Clemente and Kleiman, 1976; Ollenburger, 1981; Lee, 1982; Lebowitz, 1975; Yin, 1980, 1985; Baumer, 1978; Clark and Lewis, 1982; Kennedy and Silverman, 1984; Warr, 1985; Liska et al., 1988; and Donnelly, 1988); education which is positively related to fear (Baker et al., 1983; Gates and Rohe, 1987; Ortega and Myles, 1987; Donnelly, 1988; although Ortega and Myles, 1987, and Smith and Hill, 1991a, found education negatively related to fear); income is positively related to fear (Liska et al., 1988; Donnelly, 1988; while Ortega and Myles, 1987, and Smith and Hill, 1991a, found income unrelated to fear); and household composition, number in the household is positively related to fear (Braungart et al., 1980; Smith and Hill, 1991a; and Donnelly, 1988).

In the following chapter, a general model explaining fear

of crime is presented. The previously stated theoretical and empirical findings have been incorporated into the model and measurement instruments to further explore fear of crime.

CHAPTER 3

RESEARCH METHODS

This research explores how victimization experience, perceived community incivilities, and social background characteristics influence perceptions of crime seriousness in the neighborhood and fear of crime. Two Air Force communities located in the southeastern United States will be studied using multi-item measures for victimization experience, perceived community incivilities, perceived crime seriousness in the neighborhood and fear of crime.

The adoption of this model derived primarily from three sources. First, Smith and Hill (1991a) published multi-item measures for fear of crime and victimization experience to explore the differential effects of property and personal victimizations on fear of crime. Second, Smith and Hill (1991b), using the same data set, expanded their first study by exploring how perceptions of crime seriousness mediate the effects of vulnerability to victimization on fear of crime. Third, LaGrange et al., (1992) examined the influence of incivilities on perceptions of risk and feelings of fear. All three sources support continuing research in this area.

Although the sources above inform the current study, there are several major differences. First, the concepts

(incivilities, victimization experience, social background characteristics, perceived crime seriousness, and fear of crime) are combined into one general model. Second, the fear scale used by Smith and Hill (1991a, 1991b) has been expanded to distinguish between fear on base in the first instance and off base in the second. Third, two Air Force communities were selected for study. These communities are unique from any studied in previous fear of crime research.

Hypothesis

Victimization experience, social background characteristics, perceived community incivility and perceived crime seriousness in the neighborhood are correlated with fear of crime.

Concepts and Conceptualization

Victimization Experience

Most often in the literature victimization experience is simply whether or not a person has been the victim of a crime (Box et al., 1988). For this research, victimization experience is conceptualized as the total weighted value, according to seriousness, of one or more of 16 victimization experiences ranging from a single property crime to murder of a household member (Smith and Hill, 1991a).

Community Incivility

Community incivilities are conceptualized by visible signs or clues of disorderly and disreputable behavior (Lewis and Maxfield, 1980). The presence or absence of these signs (or

cues) lead to an individual estimate of danger and decay.

Social Background Characteristics

The social background characteristics studied are those that have been found to correlate with fear of crime. These characteristics are gender, race, education, household size, age, and income.

Perceived Crime Seriousness

Perceived crime seriousness is simply the respondent's perceptions of the frequency of ten specific crimes in their neighborhood. These crimes are burglary, illegal drugs, drunk driving, rape, assault, robbery, theft or larceny, trespassing, vandalism, and obscene or threatening phone calls (Smith and Hill, 1991b).

Fear of Crime

Fear of crime is a somewhat elusive construct, typically conceptualized as the degree of anxiety and concern the individual has toward becoming a victim (Smith and Hill, 1991b) or the perception of likelihood of becoming a victim (Giles-Sims, 1984). Ultimately, it is a feeling of alarm, an expectation of danger, the emotional reaction arising from crime, or symbols that a person associates with crime (Ferraro and La Grange, 1987).

Posited Connection Among Concepts

Figure 1 presents a path analytic representation of the connection between concepts, followed by a brief explanation of each. The diagram is signed (+/-) for direction of hypothesized effects.

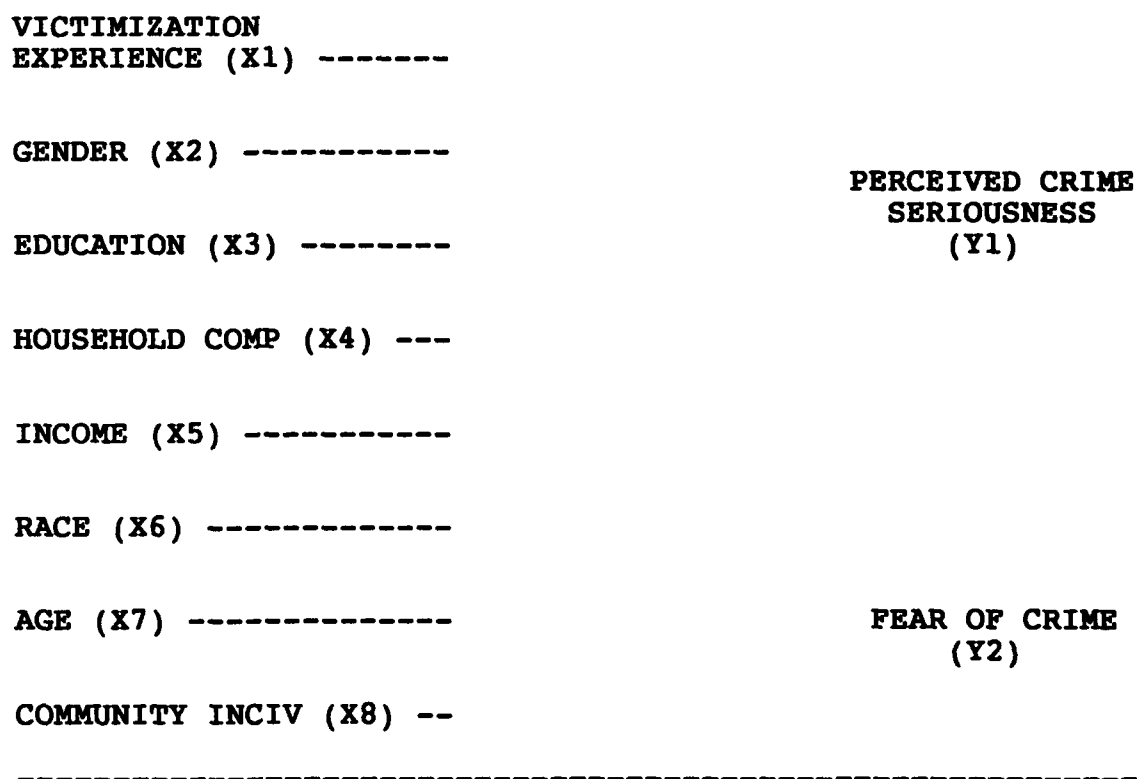


FIGURE 1. Conceptual Model with Fear of Crime as the Ultimate Dependent Variable. (See Note 2)

Explaining the Connection

- a. Victimization experiences (X1) is positively related to perceived crime seriousness in the neighborhood (Y1).
- b. Victimization experiences (X1) is positively related

to fear of crime (Y2).

c. Female respondents (X2) will express higher perceived crime seriousness scores (Y1) than will males in the sample.

d. Female respondents (X2) will indicate higher fear of crime scores (Y2) than will males in the sample.

e. Education (X3) is inversely related to perceived crime seriousness in the neighborhood (Y1).

f. Education (X3) is inversely related to fear of crime (Y2).

g. Household size (X4) is inversely related to perceived crime seriousness in the neighborhood (Y1).

h. Household size (X4) is inversely related to fear of crime (Y2).

i. Household income (X5) is inversely related to perceived crime seriousness in the neighborhood (Y1).

j. Household income (X5) is inversely related to fear of crime (Y2).

k. White respondents (X6) will indicate higher perceived crime seriousness (Y1) scores than nonwhites.

l. White respondents (X6) will express higher fear of crime (Y2) scores than nonwhites.

m. Age (X7) is positively related to perceived crime seriousness in the neighborhood (Y1).

n. Age (X7) is positively related to fear of crime (Y2).

o. Perceived community incivility (X7) is positively related to perceived crime seriousness in the neighborhood

(Y1).

p. Perceived community incivility (X7) is positively related to fear of crime (Y2).

q. Perceived crime seriousness in the neighborhood (Y1) is positively related to fear of crime (Y2).

Theoretical Rationale

Victimization Experience

At the most general level, the expectation is that victimization experiences should cause individuals to be more fearful of crime. As Warr (1987) explains, the degree fear of crime is exhibited will differ between individuals because each person has differing thresholds of fear and risk. Four categories [no victimization, single (property) victimization, multiple (either two property or one personal) victimizations, and serious (everything scored above multiple) victimization] will be used to examine the independent effects of the different types of victimization experiences reported (Smith and Hill, 1991b).

Social Background Variables

The six social background variables (gender, education household composition, income, age, and race) were selected because of the consistent empirical findings relating their direct and indirect effects on fear of crime, seemingly independent of actual risk. It is likely that certain individual characteristics influence one's confidence as to whether or not they could adequately deal with a threatening

situation. This could include the ability to effectively deal with a potential criminal confrontation, the ability to dissuade the situation from happening, or the ability to handle the financial consequences of victimization. This view is consistent with the "social vulnerability" arguments of Skogan and Maxfield (1984; Lee, 1982; Ortega and Myles, 1987; and Donnelly, 1987).

Perceived Community Incivility

A common research finding is that community incivilities are often as powerful in generating feelings of fear as crime itself (LaGrange et al., 1992). Previous research also discloses that fear of crime is increased by signs of disorder (incivility), despite the fact that these signs of incivility have little to do with the actual amount of serious crime (Lewis and Maxfield, 1980). Signs of incivility lead people to believe they have more to be fearful of and have less control over things happening around them. These incivilities trigger feelings of fear because people associate negative community conditions with criminal activity.

Perceived Crime Seriousness

Perceived crime seriousness in the neighborhood is most likely influenced by actual and perceived risk. McPherson (1978) argues that individuals have reasonably accurate perceptions of the seriousness of crime in the neighborhoods in which they live; however, Lewis and Maxfield (1980) found only a weak relationship between crime perceptions and

official crime rates.

Scope of the Theory

The theory applies to everyone. All people are exposed to crime. It explores the emotional effects of crime on people, who by their direct and indirect exposure to risk, fear becoming a victim. Moving beyond this level, the theory is focused on social characteristics and neighborhood conditions which may increase or decrease perceptions of crime seriousness and fear of crime.

Assumptions Underlying the Theory

The following three assumptions should be considered in viewing this theory concerning fear of crime:

1. Fear of crime exists in a "paradoxical" state in which some people fear crime beyond their actual risk of victimization while others who should be more fearful are not.
2. Fear of crime research is ultimately aimed at policy formulation to improve quality of life.
3. Despite our failure as a society to eradicate crime, it may be possible to reduce fear of crime through environmental and social design changes.

The information presented, thus far, has discussed previous fear of crime research, stated the current research proposal, and addressed several theoretical components important to the topic. In the following section, the concepts will be operationalized using previous research findings as a guide.

Operationalizations

Victimization Experience

The victimization measure consists of 16 questions. Each response is assigned a weighted value based on the seriousness, and the sum of the scaled score is collapsed into four categories. This measure is described at greater length below.

Respondents were asked to indicate the number of times any of the following types of victimization occurred to either themselves or a household member (Smith and Hill, 1991a; 1991b):

1. During the past 12 months, did anyone damage, destroy or attempt to destroy your home or any property around your home?
2. During the past 12 months, did anyone steal or try to steal a car, truck, or motorcycle owned by you or other members of your household?
3. During the past 12 months, did anyone steal anything from inside your home, such as a stereo, TV, jewelry, gun, or purse, etc.?
4. During the past 12 months, did anyone steal anything that is kept outside your home such as a bicycle, or a garden hose?
5. During the past 12 months, did anyone steal parts attached to a car or truck owned by any member of your household, such as a battery, hubcaps, or tapedeck?

6. During the past 12 months, did you or any member of your household have anything stolen from them while they were away from home, for instance, at work, school, in a theater, in a restaurant, or while traveling?

7. During the past 12 months, did you or any member of your household have a purse or wallet snatched or pockets picked?

8. During the past 12 months, did you or any member of your household have something stolen from inside a car or truck, such as packages or clothing?

9. During the past 12 months, did anyone break into or somehow illegally get into your house, apartment, garage, or another building on your property?

10. During the past 12 months, did you find a door jimmied, a lock forced, or other signs of attempted break-in (do not include second home, business property, or camps)?

During the past 12 months, were you or any member of your household a victim of any of the following violent crimes?

11. Did anyone take something or attempt to take something directly from you or any member of your household by using force, such as a stick-up, mugging, or threat?

12. Did anyone beat-up, attack, or hit you or any member of your household?

13. Were you or any member of your household knifed, shot at, or attacked with some other weapon by anyone?

14. Did anyone threaten to beat-up or threaten you

or any member of your household with a knife, gun, or some other weapon?

15. Did anyone rape or attempt to rape you or any member of your household?

16. Were any members of your household murdered?

A weighted value, based on the seriousness of victimization, is assigned to each of the 16 victimization variables. The weights replicate those used by Smith and Hill (1991a) and are shown in Table 1. Smith and Hill developed the victimization weights after administering a questionnaire to a convenience sample of undergraduate students enrolled at a large state university in 1986 (N = 130). The respondents rated the seriousness of each of the 16 offense variables on a scale from 1 (not serious) to 10 (extremely serious). The mean was established for each offense, ranging from theft of a car part (6.531) to murder of a household member (9.945). The lowest mean was assigned a weight of 1.000, and all other weights were calculated using the formula:

$$W(i) = 1 + [X(i) - X(j)]$$

where

$W(i)$ = the seriousness weight

$X(i)$ = the mean of the crime whose weight is being established

$X(j)$ = the lowest calculated mean (6.531)

Table 1. Means of Crime Seriousness Statements, Standard Deviation, and Seriousness Weight for Victimization Experiences Established by Smith and Hill (1991a)

(N=130) Variable	Mean	Standard Deviation	Serious Weight
Damage Home	7.516	1.805	1.985
Steal Car	7.753	1.616	2.221
Stolen Inside Home	8.100	1.451	2.569
Stolen Outside Home	6.867	1.722	1.336
Steal Parts, Car	6.531	1.766	1.000
Stolen While Away	6.723	1.859	1.192
Purse/Pockets	7.323	1.699	1.792
Stolen Inside Vehicle	7.031	1.641	1.500
Entry To Home	8.200	1.527	2.669
Entry Attempt	7.752	1.662	2.159
Robbery By Force	9.434	0.789	3.903
Physical Attack	8.946	1.170	3.415
Attack, Weapon	8.341	1.826	2.810
Threat of Attack	8.163	1.634	2.632
Rape	9.760	0.583	4.229
Murder	9.945	0.458	4.414

The sum of the victimization experience scale is collapsed into four victimization experience categories--no victimization, single (property) victimization, multiple victimization (consisting of two property or one personal victimizations) and serious victimization (everything scored above multiple victim).

Social Background Characteristics

The following six questions were used to measure those social background characteristics which most often predict fear of crime:

Gender

Gender is simply whether the respondent is male or female (Box et al., 1988; Liska et al., 1988; Donnelly, 1988; Miethe et al., 1990).

Education

Education is the level of formal education completed by the respondent, ranging from some high school to post-graduate work (Smith and Hill, 1991b). Education level was later collapsed into three categories, high school, some college, and college degree, because of the limited number of respondents on both ends of the education measure.

Household Composition

Household composition is a simple count of the number living in the respondents household (Smith and Hill, 1991b). The household number is divided into three categories, one member (respondents lives alone), two members (respondents is married or is a single parent), or three or more members (respondents is a single parent with two or more children or married with children).

Income

Annual income is the respondents reported total annual income for the household. Seven incremental measures of

income were initially collected (Riger et al., 1982; Gates and Rohe, 1987; Liska et al., 1988); but, due to the limited cases reported in the extreme categories, income was collapsed into less than \$20,000, \$20,001 to \$40,000, and over \$50,000. No respondents reported incomes of \$40,001 to \$50,000.

Race

Race was determined by the respondents selection from among the following categories: white, black, hispanic, asian or other (Miethe et al., 1990; Box, et al., 1988). Due to the limited cases selected for hispanics, asians, and other, race was later collapsed into white and nonwhite.

Age

Age was indicated by respondent's selection from one of five age categories (Smith and Hill, 1991a, 1991b) which was later reduced to three categories: 18 to 25, 26 to 35, and over 35.

Community Incivility

Community incivility was measured by having respondents indicate their agreement or disagreement with seven statements. Responses are coded using a four point Likert Scale.

1. I have noisy neighbors. (Gates and Rohe, 1987)
2. Most of my neighbors keep their homes and yards in good condition. (Gates and Rohe, 1987)
3. Juvenile loitering, fighting, cursing, and similar activities are a problem in my neighborhood. (Box et al.,

1988)

4. Drugs and alcohol are a problem in my neighborhood.
(Box et al., 1988; Lewis and Maxfield, 1980)

5. My neighbors frequently have loud parties. (Box et al., 1988)

6. Vandalism is a problem in my neighborhood. (Lewis and Maxfield, 1980)

7. In general, would you say that conditions in your neighborhood are (getting worse, staying the same, or getting better)?

Respondents were then classified into one of three categories based on the number of positive responses coded: low (scored from zero positive answers to one positive response), moderate (scored from two to three positive responses), and high (more than three positive responses).

Perceived Crime Seriousness

Perceived Crime Seriousness in the Neighborhood was measured by using ten responses measuring how respondents feel about the seriousness of the following crimes (Smith and Hill, 1991b):

1. Burglary
2. Illegal Drugs
3. Drunk Driving
4. Rape
5. Assault
6. Robbery

7. Theft or Larceny
8. Trespassing
9. Vandalism
10. Obscene or Threatening Phone Calls

Scores from the perceived crime seriousness index were then collapsed into none (no perceived problems), low (one or two perceived problems), moderate (three or four perceived problems), and high (five or more perceived problems).

Fear of Crime

Fear of Crime was measured by two separate indexes consisting of eight questions each. The primary index replicates that of Smith and Hill (1991a; 1991b) with one exception: three questions (questions 2, 6, and 7 below) were modified to distinguish between "on base" in the first index, and "off base" in the second. It is thought that this alteration will permit a more exact geographical reference in the first index, and permit, a previously unused, measure in the second index.

1. When I am away from home, I worry about the safety of my property.

2. (On base/Off base), I worry a great deal about my personal safety from crime and criminals.

3. Even in my own home, I'm not safe from people who want to take what I have.

4. There are some parts of the county that I avoid during the day because of fear of crime.

5. There are some parts of the county that I avoid at night because of fear of crime.

6. I feel safe going anywhere (on base/off base) in the daytime.

7. I feel safe going anywhere (on base/off base) after dark.

8. Crime is more serious than the newspapers and TV say.

As with many of the other variables, the fear of crime index was recoded based on the sum index scores (possible range of 0 to 24). The following new categories were created: low fear (index scores from 0 to 8); moderate fear (index scores from 9 to 12); and, high fear (index scores 13 or higher).

Having developed the process through which the variables can be measured, the following section breaks down the concepts into empirically testable hypotheses.

Hypotheses

a. There is a positive relationship between victimization experiences and perceptions of crime seriousness in the neighborhood and fear of crime.

b. Females will exhibit higher perceptions of crime seriousness in the neighborhood and fear of crime than males.

c. There is an inverse relationship between education and perceived crime in the neighborhood and fear of crime.

d. Households with only one person will exhibit higher

perceived crime seriousness in the neighborhood and fear of crime index scores than households with more than one person.

e. There is an inverse relationship between income and perceptions of crime seriousness in the neighborhood and fear of crime.

f. There is a positive relationship between community incivility scores and perceptions of crime seriousness in the neighborhood and fear of crime index scores.

The previous section established the framework for empirically testing the hypotheses pursued in this research proposal. In the following section, the methodological issues associated with this research design are addressed.

Methodology

Sample Selection

The data for the present study was collected between November 1992 and January 1993 from Tyndall Air Force Base, Florida, and Moody Air Force Base, Georgia. Base telephone directories were used to identify phone numbers for persons living on base. From these lists, a reference number was randomly assigned and all remaining numbers were numbered from that point. Then, using a random number table, 200 numbers were selected from Tyndall and 150 numbers were selected from Moody, proportionate to 12 percent of the active duty military personnel living on Tyndall and 17 percent of the active duty military personnel living on Moody. The greater percentage selected from Moody was necessary because only 871 active duty

live on base, compared to 1,708 active duty living on Tyndall (this data shown in more detail below).

The telephone survey was administered to persons 18 or older, from each household who volunteered to participate in the survey (See Note 4). Phone numbers determined to be out of service were replaced.

Points of contact at each base provided a 1991 Economic Resource Impact Statement. These documents provided information on the number of active duty military personnel residing on the installation, and provides reasonably accurate information concerning the sampling frame. Due to the currency of the documents and mobility of base residents, more precise sampling frames could not be determined.

The following information was obtained:

	<u>Moody</u>	<u>Tyndall</u>
Active Duty Military Living On Base:	871	1,708
Total Phone Numbers Identified: (See NOTE 3)	284	877
Family Housing Units:	304	1,070
Officer Units:	36	137
Enlisted Units:	268	933
Dormitory Beds:	652	1,102
Enlisted Beds:	648	1,102
Officer Rooms:	4	0

Bases Selected for Analysis

The two bases were selected because of their location and representativeness with other bases located in the Southeastern United States (See NOTE 5).

Tyndall is located adjacent to Panama City, Florida. It has a population of approximately 150,000, and is in close proximity to the cities of Mexico Beach, Florida, and Panama City Beach, Florida. The area serves as a tourist attraction for millions of people who enjoy the local beaches and other attractions. This close association with seasonal tourism and population density is representative of other Air Force bases located in the southeast (i.e., Myrtle Beach AFB, Myrtle Beach, South Carolina; Keesler AFB, Biloxi, Mississippi; and Patrick AFB, Cocoa Beach, Florida). Moody is more remote than Tyndall. The nearest city is Valdosta, Georgia, a city with a population of approximately 50,000, located 18 miles away. The primary industry in the area is agriculture. Moody is thought to be geographically similar to Robins AFB, near Elberta, Georgia; Columbus AFB, Kolola, Mississippi; and Altus AFB, Altus, Oklahoma.

Dobbins Air Force Base, located by Atlanta, Georgia, was the only base in the Southeast located near a major metropolitan area (population over 500,000). It was not selected; however, because the base is in the process of closing and an appropriate sample would be difficult to obtain.

Rationale for Selecting Military Communities

Air Force communities were selected because they are distinct from communities previously studied in fear of crime research. Although military personnel and their families mirror society at large, there are several major differences concerning community life. First, at least one member of every household is employed. Second, military personnel are restricted to careers which do not exceed 30 years service, and a large percentage are expected to exit the service after the first four year commitment. Thus, the age distribution should be younger and is not representative of larger society. Third, military wages are above the poverty level. This may be significant given that Patterson (1991) found absolute poverty (defined by Patterson as households earning below \$5,000 annually) is significantly associated with higher community crime rates. Fourth, the area surrounding the Air Force community is fenced and posted with legally enforceable warning signs, continuously patrolled internally by security personnel, and entry can only be gained through periodically manned entry points. The combined security measures are designed to limit access solely to community residents, their sponsored guests, personnel employed on the installation, and other personnel authorized to visit the installation. In addition, use is considered a privilege which may be terminated or limited, given just cause, by the base commander. It is believed that these combined security

measures increase feelings of safety and well-being among community residents unequaled in larger society. Fifth, Air Force installations are devoid of many incivilities such as run down buildings, dense population centers, uninhabited buildings, and unkept yards. Altogether, the Air Force community is a more controlled environment than any community previously studied; thus, serving as a unique environment in which to study fear of crime.

Methodological Weaknesses

The survey was verbally administered to respondents by telephone. This form of data collection suffers from many of the weaknesses of National Crime Surveys (i.e., sampling errors, social desirability responses, forgetting about past events, telescoping, etc.,) as well as from the added problems associated with conducting unbounded interviews (see O'Brien, 1985) which have proven to provide inflated estimates of victimization.

Another source of bias in this type of sample is that some households do not have a telephone. Although the most current census data reflects this number to be under 5% nationally (LaGrange et al., 1992), fewer dorm residents will have telephones. The dormitories are equipped with hall phones and have, thus, eliminated the need to have individual phones in each room.

A final bias associated with this sample is that persons under the age of 18 years have been excluded. Therefore, any

influence these persons have on the survey will be mediated through an older household member (See Note 4).

These constraints should be kept in mind when interpreting the data and generalizing from the results.

Testing the Survey

Although survey questions were extracted from the literature, some of the questions were developed from only one or two words such as litter, age, income, loud noise, etc. In these cases, a four-point Likert scale was used to code respondents' answers. Also, in generating this model, there were questions as to flow and ordering of the questions. These factors led to the decision to test the survey prior to data collection.

In November 1992, the survey was tested by calling 25 randomly selected households at Altus Air Force Base, Oklahoma. Four employees at The Research Network were hired to make the calls. Phone calls were monitored to assess callers and respondents interaction. Five respondents were called back and asked their opinion of the survey, and callers were also asked to assess the survey. Their comments were constructive and largely favorable. Several minor alterations were made to the survey and the answer options to two questions were modified--neither of these questions related to this research.

CHAPTER 4

FINDINGS

Before presenting the bivariate and multivariate associations among the variables, it will be useful to provide the reader with a summary of descriptive information about the sample. (More detailed data are presented in Appendix A, Table 8, for each posited concept.)

Response Rate

The response rate for Tyndall was 79 percent (n=157) and 73 percent (n=109) for Moody (N=266). The refusal rate was low at both installations, less than 5 percent. The remaining proportion of the sample could not be reached by phone after at least seven phone calls.

Social Characteristics of the Sample

As anticipated, the specific characteristics of respondents in the sample proved to be unique from any previously studied in fear of crime research. The following information supports this view.

The first of these characteristics relates to combined annual income of the household. Forty-one percent of the respondents earned between 10,000 and 20,000 dollars annually, 51 percent earned between 20,001 and 40,000 dollars annually, and eight percent earned greater than 50,000 dollars, and six percent earned below 10,000 (See NOTE 6). Somewhat

surprisingly, no respondents indicated an income of 40,000 to 50,000 dollars.

The second of these characteristics relates to the education level of respondents in the sample. Over 98 percent of respondents indicated they had attained a high school diploma. This was expected given the Air Force requires either a high school diploma or the GED equivalent. Nearly 48 percent of all respondents had some college, while 17 percent had a two year degree and 13 percent had completed a bachelors degree or higher.

The third significant characteristic associated with this sample concerns age of the respondents. Over 98 percent of respondents were between 18 and 45 years old as of their last birthday: 26 percent were between 18 and 25; 52 percent between 26 and 35; and, 23 percent indicated an age over 35. Only 4 respondents (1.5 percent) were between 46 and 55, and no one indicated an age over 55.

The forth characteristic concerns race. Approximately 74 percent of the respondents were White, 20 percent were Black, 2 percent were Hispanic, 3 percent were Asian, and 1 percent indicated they were Other. Although this may accurately represent the ethnic population of Moody and Tyndall Air Force Bases, it cannot be considered representative of other bases in the southeast. For example, bases in Texas and Oklahoma may have higher hispanic populations than indicated in this sample.

Other social characteristics of respondents in the sample relate to gender, household composition, and military status: sixty percent of respondents were male and 40 percent were female; nearly 15 percent of respondents lived alone, while 70 percent consisted of three or more persons in the household; and, 89 percent were enlisted, and the remaining 11 percent were officer households.

Victimization Experiences

The most frequently reported experience was something stolen from outside the home such as a bicycle or garden hose, 36 incidents (14 percent) were reported out of the 266 households surveyed. In line with the literature, property crimes were the most often reported and personal crimes were rare event occurrences. Under personal victims, respondents reported one murder of a household member, one rape, nine incidents of physical attack, three incidents of physical attack with a weapon, and three incidents of robbery by force.

One must be cautious in interpreting these data, however, due to differing responses and the possibility of duplicate counting. A physical attack may be little more than a child being hit at school or by another neighborhood youth. Likewise, the series of questions permit one incident to be scored under several indicators. For example, it is conceivable for a robbery by force to be scored under that category as well as a physical attack, a physical attack with a weapon, a threat of attack with or without a weapon, and

anything stolen while away from home. Specific inquiries were not made by the surveyor to isolate a victimization experience into a single indicator due to replication of the sampling instrument.

Perceived Community Incivility

Perceived incivilities were measured using a scale of seven survey questions, and scoring ranged from 0 (no perceived incivilities) to 20. One question concerning conditions in the neighborhood had only three answer options (scored 0 to 2), while the other six questions used a four-point Likert scale answer option. The majority of respondents (90 percent) indicated low (47 percent) or moderate (43 percent) incivility scores. Only 16 (6 percent) respondents indicated high incivility scores. These findings are in line with the general literature concerning incivilities, except for the smaller proportion of respondents in the sample who indicated high perceived community incivilities. Although this was anticipated given the nature of the Air Force community, LaGrange, et al. (1992), found a higher percentage (20 percent) of respondents who expressed five or more incivility problems which would have been scored in the high category of this research.

Perception of Crime Seriousness

The perceived crime seriousness scale consisted of ten questions concerning crime problems in the neighborhood. Scores on the perceived crime index ranged from 0 (not a

problem) to 24 and extreme scores were infrequent. This is in line with the literature. As expected, 50 percent of respondents indicated no perceived crime problems in the neighborhood. Of those remaining, 28 percent indicated only low crime, 11 percent moderate crime and 8 percent perceived high crime problems in their neighborhood. Although the same perceived crime seriousness questions developed by Smith and Hill (1991b) were used, Smith and Hill found most respondents in their sample felt that crime was somewhat of a problem. At Tyndall and Moody, most respondents indicated no crime problems. This difference may be associated with the additional security measures and unique community settings found on Air Force installations.

Fear of Crime

On and off base fear of crime were measured using two scales and scoring ranged from 0 (no fear) to 24 on each scale. Respondents indicated a mean on base fear score of 8.492 (sd = 3.244), and an off base mean of 11.188 (sd = 3.898). Most respondents in the sample express neither extremely high nor extremely low levels of fear. Approximately 80 percent of the sample indicated levels of fear in the 5 to 12 range on base, and 7 to 15 range off base. Only two respondents, on base, reported no fear at all.

Survey Response Differences Between Bases

There were 157 completed surveys at Tyndall and 109 completed surveys at Moody comprising the 266 total

completions. Only seven survey questions revealed any statistically significant differences between respondent answers out of the 63 questions surveyed. Table 2 below reflects these data.

The differences can be grouped into three categories (crime, fear, and rank) and warrant further explanation due to the patterning of responses at each base.

Table 2. Statistically Significant Variable Response Differences Between Moody and Tyndall Air Force Bases
(N = 266)

Variable	Tau C	Significance
Vandalism a Problem (V18)	-.22 (n=265)	.05
Burglary (V20)	-.12 (n=265)	.001
Vandalism (V28)	-.08 (n=265)	.05
Robbery By Force (V40)	.03 (n=266)	.05
Daytime Avoid Parts of County (V50)	.12 (n=266)	.05
Nighttime Avoid Parts of County (V51)	.13 (n=266)	.05
Rank (V63)	-.10 (n=264)	.01

Vandalism, vandalism a problem, burglary, and robbery by force are categorized as victimization or perception of crime questions on the survey. A higher percentage of respondents at Tyndall reported greater incidents of vandalism

and burglary and perceived vandalism a problem than did Moody respondents; but, a higher percentage of Moody respondents indicated a greater incidence of robbery by force than did Tyndall respondents. Official crime records were not checked to confirm these findings.

The two questions concerning avoidance of parts of the county during the daytime and at night fell under the concept of fear. A higher percentage of Moody respondents agreed and strongly agreed with these questions than did Tyndall respondents. While administering the survey to Moody respondents, several added they were aware of a specific problem area (off base) which may account for this variation.

The difference in rank distribution between Moody and Tyndall is due to officer housing differences at each base. Only five Moody officers and 23 Tyndall officers were represented in the survey completions. A review of the resource impact statements for each installation assists in explaining this shortcoming. Moody has 36 officer housing units and four officer dormitory rooms. Tyndall, on the other hand, has 137 officer housing units; but, provides no single officer dormitories. Due to these limitations in the sampling frame, officer-enlisted comparisons should be viewed with caution.

Original Relationships Among Concepts

Table 3 depicts the zero order correlations among major concepts, excluding the social background variables which are

addressed in Table 4. These results demonstrate the original relationships posited by this research--the general fear of crime model and posited hypotheses (Chapter 3). All of the hypothesized relationships are statistically significant at .001 except the association between victimization and on base fear which is significant at the .01 level. No hypothesized effects were posited for the association between victimization experience and perceived community incivilities, or the off base fear concepts. They are entered into the table for purposes of comparison and discussion.

As anticipated, victimization experiences and perceived community incivilities serve to increase a person's perceptions of crime seriousness in the neighborhood and fear of crime. Likewise, respondents who perceive crime problems in their neighborhood are more likely to report being fearful, net other variables in the model. These findings are in line with the combined efforts of Smith and Hill (1991a, 1991b) and LaGrange, et al. (1992).

Although there was no posited connection between on and off base fear, the strength of the relationship proved interesting enough to warrant discussion. The following analysis is presented to distinguish between the two dimensions of respondent's fear on and off base at Tyndall and Moody.

Table 3. Kendall's Tau C Associations Between Victimization Experience, Perceived Community Incivilities, Perceived Crime Seriousness in the Neighborhood, and On and Off Base Fear of Crime Among Respondents at Moody and Tyndall Air Force Bases (N = 266)

Variables	Perceived Incivility	Perceived Crime	Fear On Base	Fear Off Base
Victimization Experience	.06 (n=255)	.17*** (n=257)	.12** (n=266)	.08* (n=266)
Perceived Incivilities	--	.26*** (n=249)	.21*** (n=255)	.08 (n=255)
Perceived Crime	--	--	.17*** (n=257)	.15** (n=257)
Fear On Base	--	--	--	.55*** (n=266)

* Significant at the .05 level

** Significant at the .01 level

*** Significant at the .001 level

A T-Test was used to test the null hypothesis that the two population means were equal. Skewness and kurtosis were within acceptable range: On base, .205/-.649; Off base, -.417/.323, respectively. The test failed to support the null, t value -22.12 and a 2-Tail Probability less than .001. The crosstabulated results revealed that 231 respondents exhibited higher fear off base, 30 indicated the same degree of fear on and off base, and only 5 indicated more fear on base.

In order to view these findings in more detail, two new variables were developed by separating the three distinct on and off base variables from the eight-question scales--the other five questions were identical in each scale. The three

variables on base were crosstabulated with the off base variables which produced a Kendall's Tau C of .18, significant at the .001 level.

Most respondents in the study indicate increased fear off base. This may be due to a greater perceived threat outside the installation; but, may be a natural tendency to fear communities outside one's own immediate neighborhood.

Association Among Concepts and Social Characteristics

In this section, gender, age, race, household composition, income, education, and rank are crosstabulated by the major concepts specified above. All hypothesized associations between the social background characteristics and perceived crime seriousness in the neighborhood and fear of crime were posited in Chapter 3. Rank is also shown in the table for information and comparison only. Table 4 illustrates the Kendall Tau C and statistical significance of each relationship. The discussion that follows states the posited hypothesized connection and results.

Gender (females), age, and race (whites) were hypothesized to be positively associated with perceived crime and fear of crime. Gender proved statistically significant in the anticipated direction with fear, but was not significant for perceived crime. Age was statistically significant for both fear and perceived crime, but in the negative direction. Race was statistically significant for on base fear, but was not significant for perceived crime.

Table 4. Kendall's Tau C Associations Between Victimization Experience, Perceived Community Incivilities, Perceived Crime Seriousness in the Neighborhood, and On and Off Base Fear of Crime and the Social Background Characteristics (Gender, Age, Race, Household Composition, Income, Education, and Rank) Among Respondents at Moody and Tyndall Air Force Bases (N = 266)

Variable	Victim	Incivil	Percept	Fear On Base	Fear Off Base
Gender	.03 (n=263)	.06 (n=253)	-.01 (n=254)	.19*** (n=263)	.18** (n=263)
Age	-.03 (n=265)	-.20*** (n=254)	-.12** (n=256)	-.09* (n=265)	-.01 (n=265)
Race	-.05 (n=265)	.00 (n=254)	-.03 (n=256)	.11* (n=265)	.08 (n=265)
Household	-.04 (n=264)	-.16*** (n=254)	-.17*** (n=255)	.08 (n=264)	.13** (n=264)
Income	.04 (n=258)	-.17*** (n=248)	-.08 (n=250)	-.10* (n=258)	-.02 (n=258)
Education	.06 (n=264)	-.05 (n=253)	.00 (n=255)	-.13** (n=264)	-.08 (n=264)
Rank	.04 (n=264)	-.08* (n=253)	-.04 (n=255)	-.07* (n=264)	-.05 (n=264)

* Significant at the .05 level

** Significant at the .01 level

*** Significant at the .001 level

Except for age, these findings are in line with the general literature. Smith and Hill (1991b) found age positively related with fear of crime. The ages of persons, generally younger than is found in most studies, in this sample may contribute to this anomaly.

Education, Household composition, and income were hypothesized to be negatively related to perceived crime and fear. Education and income were statistically significant

for fear in the anticipated direction, but were not significant for perceived crime. Household composition was statistically significant in the anticipated direction for perceived crime, but was not significant for fear. These findings were in line with Smith and Hill's (1991b).

Two other interesting points should be addressed concerning the data presented above. First, none of the social background variables are significant in predicting victimization. This is not surprising given the unit of analysis, the household. Specific questions were not used to determine information concerning the victim. Second, all of the social background variables proved significant in predicting fear except household composition. These findings are generally supported in the literature.

Association Between Concepts Using Social Characteristics as Controls

Tables 5 and 6, below, illustrate the multivariate relationships among victimization experience, perceived community incivilities, perceived crime seriousness in the neighborhood, and on base fear of crime with gender, age, race, rank, income, education, and household composition entered into the analysis as controls. This analysis tests under which conditions the original relationships among concepts are strengthened or weakened.

Table 5. Kendall's Tau C Association Among Victimization Experience, Perceived Community Incivilities, Perceived Crime Seriousness in the Neighborhood, and On Base Fear of Crime, Controlling for Respondents' Gender, Age, Race, and Rank at Moody and Tyndall Air Force Bases (N = 266)

Control Variable	a X d	c X d	b X d	a X c	b X c
Gender					
Male	.08 (n=157)	.08 (n=153)	.22*** (n=151)	.11* (n=153)	.22*** (n=149)
Female	.18** (n=106)	.33*** (n=101)	.20** (n=102)	.25*** (n=101)	.30*** (n=98)
Age					
18 to 25	.16* (n=68)	.19* (n=67)	.15 (n=63)	.18* (n=67)	.19* (n=63)
26 to 35	.06 (n=137)	.04 (n=131)	.17** (n=132)	.14** (n=131)	.20** (N=128)
Over 35	.16* (n=60)	.37*** (n=58)	.42*** (n=59)	.14 (n=58)	.40*** (n=57)
Race					
White	.14** (n=197)	.20*** (n=190)	.24*** (n=190)	.23*** (n=190)	.25*** (n=185)
Nonwhite	.09 (n=68)	.15 (n=66)	.13 (n=64)	-.02 (n=68)	.31*** (n=63)
Rank					
Officer	.20 (n=28)	.34** (n=27)	.13 (n=27)	.45*** (n=27)	.31* (n=27)
Enlisted	.09* (n=236)	.13** (n=228)	.19*** (n=226)	.12** (n=228)	.24*** (n=220)

a = Victimization

b = Perceived Incivilities

c = Perceptions of Crime Seriousness

d = On Base Fear

* = Significant at the .05 level

** = Significant at the .01 level

*** = Significant at the .001 level

Table 6. Kendall's Tau C Association Among Victimization Experience, Perceived Community Incivilities, Perceived Crime Seriousness in the Neighborhood, and On Base Fear of Crime, Controlling for Respondents' Income, Education, and Household Composition at Moody and Tyndall Air Force Bases (N = 266)

Control Variable	a X d	c X d	b X d	a X c	b X c
Income					
Less 20,000	.19** (n=105)	.06 (n=101)	.21** (n=99)	.13*** (n=101)	.23** (n=97)
20 to 40,000	.04 (n=131)	.24*** (n=127)	.16** (n=127)	.09 (n=127)	.30*** (n=123)
Over 50,000	.41* (n=22)	.30 (n=22)	.31 (n=22)	.31* (n=22)	.30 (n=22)
Education					
High School	.10 (n=59)	.03 (n=56)	.11 (n=54)	-.03 (n=54)	.09 (n=52)
Some College	.13* (n=172)	.17** (n=166)	.20*** (n=166)	.20*** (n=166)	.28*** (n=162)
Bachelors	.11 (n=33)	.38** (n=33)	.33** (n=33)	.27** (n=33)	.36** (n=33)
Household					
One	.25* (n=39)	.26* (n=38)	.26* (n=37)	.07 (n=38)	.03 (n=37)
Two	.02 (n=39)	.02 (n=39)	.08 (n=37)	.17 (n=39)	.12 (n=37)
Three Plus	.11* (n=186)	.23*** (n=178)	.27*** (n=180)	.16*** (n=178)	.27*** (n=174)

a = Victimization

b = Perceived Incivilities

c = Perceptions of Crime Seriousness

d = On Base Fear

* = Significant at the .05 level

** = Significant at the .01 level

*** = Significant at the .001 level

Victimization Experience and On Base Fear of Crime

The association between victimization experience and on base fear of crime was hypothesized to be positive in Chapter 3. The magnitude of this association was established in Table 3 by a Kendall's Tau C of .12, significant at the .01 level. By controlling for the sociodemographic variables of respondents in the sample (Table 5), we find that for females, those 18 to 25 and over 35 years old, whites, those earning less than \$20,000 and over \$50,000 dollars annually, those with some college, and households consisting of one member victimization are positively related to fear of crime. While the association remains positive and significant, it was weakened modestly by those respondents who lived in enlisted member households and households with three or more persons. There was no association between victimization experience and fear of crime among persons in the sample who were male, aged 26 to 35, nonwhites, officers, persons earning \$20,000 to \$40,000 dollars annually, those with a high school education or at least a bachelors degree, and in households with only two members.

Perception of Crime Seriousness and On Base Fear

The association between perception of crime seriousness in the neighborhood and on base fear was hypothesized to be positive, supported by a Kendall's Tau C of .17 in Table 3. Respondents in the sample who were female, aged 18 to 25 or over 35, white, officer, earned \$20,000 to \$40,000, had at

least a bachelors degree, and households with either one or three members strengthened the original relationship. For those persons with some college, the relationship remained the same, and enlisted member households weakened the relationship moderately. There appears to be no association between perceived crime seriousness and fear of crime among males, persons 26 to 35, nonwhites, those earning less than \$20,000 and over \$50,000, high school graduates, and two member households in the sample.

Perceived Community Incivilities and On Base Fear

The original hypothesis predicted a positive relationship between perceived community incivilities and on base fear of crime. This was also supported in Table 3 by a Kendall's Tau C of .21. Males, persons over 35, whites, persons with a bachelors, and households with one member or three or more members strengthened the original relationship. Females, persons 26 to 35, enlisted households, households earning \$40,000 or less, and persons with some college in the sample were the same or weakened the relationship slightly. There was no association for persons in the sample who earned \$50,000 or more, high school graduates, two member households, officers, nonwhites, and persons 18 to 25.

Victimization and Perceived Crime Seriousness

The original relationship between victimization experience and perceived crime seriousness in the neighborhood was

hypothesized to be positive, supported in Table 3 by a Kendall's Tau C of .17. Respondents in the sample who were female, persons 18 to 25, whites, officers, those earning less than \$20,000 or more than \$50,000 had some college or a bachelors, and households with three or more persons strengthened the original relationship. The relationship was moderately weakened by those respondents who were male, age 26 to 35, and enlisted. The association was not significant for those persons in the sample who were over 35, nonwhites, households earning \$20,000 to 40,000, high school graduates, and one and two member households.

Perceived Incivilities and Perceived Crime Seriousness

A Kendall's Tau C of .26 in Table 3 supported the original relationship hypothesized between perceived community incivilities and perceived crime seriousness in the neighborhood. Only four respondent sociodemographic categories in the sample (those earning over \$50,000, high school graduates, and households with one or two members) failed to support the hypothesized relationship. Females, persons over 35 years old, nonwhites, officers, households earning \$20,000 to \$40,000, persons with some college or a college degree, and households with three or more members in the sample strengthened the original relationship. Respondents in the sample who were male, those 35 or younger, whites enlisted member households, and households earning less than \$20,000 weakened the relationship very modestly.

Impact of Victimization, Incivilities, and
Perceived Crime on Fear of Crime

Table 7 illustrates the multivariate association between victimization experience and perceived community incivilities with fear of crime using perception of crime seriousness in the neighborhood as a control. The purpose is to determine whether the effects of victimization and community incivilities are direct on fear of crime or mediated through perception of crime seriousness in the neighborhood (See Note 8).

The results indicate a conditional relationship between victimization and fear of crime when controlling for perception of crime seriousness in the neighborhood. For those respondents in the sample who indicated no ($-.01$) or low ($.02$) perceived crime problems in their neighborhood, the original relationship ($.12^{**}$) disappeared. This finding supports the intervening effects of the respondents' perceptions of crime on fear of crime. On the other hand, the original relationship is sustained for those respondents who indicate moderate ($.17$) and high ($.32^{*}$) perceived crime seriousness scores, indicating both direct and indirect effects on fear. Respondents who were victimized by more than a minor incident were more fearful and perceived greater crime seriousness in their neighborhood. Victimization appears, then, to increase respondents' fear both directly and indirectly by increasing perceptions of crime seriousness in the neighborhood. These findings

Table 7. Kendall's Tau C Associations for Fear of Crime by Victimization Experience and Perceived Community Incivilities, Controlling for Respondents' Perceptions of Crime Seriousness in the Neighborhood at Moody and Tyndall Air Force Bases (N = 266)

	Fear of Crime By Victimization	Fear of Crime By Incivilities
Zero Order	.12** (n=266)	.21*** (n=255)
Perceived Crime		
None	-.01 (n=133)	.14* (n=129)
Low	.02 (n=74)	.21** (n=72)
Moderate	.17 (n=29)	.21 (n=28)
High	.32* (n=21)	.18 (n=20)

* Statistically significant at the .05 level

** Statistically significant at the .01 level

*** Statistically significant at the .001 level

generally support those of Smith and Hill (1991b), and Baker, et al. (1983), who argue fear of crime cannot be measured accurately without accounting for perceptions.

The data in Table 7 also indicate respondents' perception of incivilities in their neighborhood has an almost entirely direct effect on fear. The relationship remained significant only for those respondents who indicated either none or low perceived crime. Assuming the smaller n size in the moderate and high cells accounted for this lack of significance, the strength of the original relationship (.21) is sustained when

controlling for persons in the sample who indicated low (.21), moderate (.21), or high (.18) perceived crime problems in their neighborhood. The relationship changed only for those respondents who indicated no (.14) crime problems in their neighborhood.

CHAPTER 5

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS

The primary focus of this study was not to replicate previous research simply to determine which subgroups of the population are more fearful. Many fear of crime research findings have been published which do an excellent job in this area. The objective was, however, to bring forward the most current conceptual and measurement instruments to study a set of communities which have not been viewed in fear of crime research. The conceptual and measurement issues received a great deal of attention in the earlier chapters. The following discussion should help clarify several of the distinctions between the findings in this study of two Air Force communities and those published in previous research.

Discussion

While it is impractical or impossible to adhere to the strict standards of a laboratory experiment when studying many social issues, social scientists continually search for answers to questions that are virtually impossible to find in an environment devoid of controls. The issue of fear of crime is one such social issue. Proof of this continues to rest on the fact that, even after more than twenty years of research, researchers in the field are still testing the correlates of

fear, and the discussion of causation remains absent.

This research operates under the same limitations, but was undertaken with the intention of studying an environment thought to be devoid of many social problems often present in previous fear of crime studies. It was thought that such a study might further our knowledge concerning fear of crime.

The basic underlying assumption behind this rationale is that reduced problems in a community should translate into reduced fear among those residents.

The Air Force community was selected for study early in the research preparation process largely due to the reasons specified above. As anticipated, the data collected from Moody and Tyndall supported the assumption, the bases studied were different from communities previously studied. Rationale supporting this conclusion are presented below.

At least one member in every household surveyed was employed and household income was not representative with previous studies. The lowest household income was more than double the absolute poverty level defined by Patterson (1991) as an annual income of \$5,000 dollars or less. Patterson's findings supported a strong positive association between absolute poverty and crime, making this finding noteworthy.

Education and age distribution were also distinctive at Moody and Tyndall. Respondents indicated higher education levels than are generally found in fear of crime studies.

Over 98 percent of respondents in the sample indicated at least a high school education. Most respondents (65 percent) indicated they had completed some college. As for age, respondents in the sample were generally younger than normally represented in fear of crime studies. Ninety-eight percent were between 18 and 45 years old as of their last birthday. No one in the sample indicated an age over 55 years. Age has been consistently reported to have a strong, positive association with fear, while education has been reported to have a negative association with fear in previous research.

While the findings relating to victimization among those sampled at Moody and Tyndall were in line with the general literature, perceived community incivilities and perceived crime seriousness in the neighborhood revealed important exceptions. In both instances, respondents indicated lower proportions of incivilities and perceived crime in their neighborhoods than are generally reported in the literature. For example, LaGrange, et al. (1992), reported 20 percent of respondents in a national study of adults indicated 5 or more incivility problems in their neighborhood. Only 6 percent of respondents at Tyndall and Moody reported the same proportion of neighborhood problems. As for perceived crime seriousness in the neighborhood, the same measure developed and used by Smith and Hill (1991b) produced different proportions. Smith and Hill reported most respondents in their North Carolina sample indicated they felt crime was somewhat of a problem.

Conversely, most Tyndall and Moody respondents reported no problems in their neighborhood.

Despite all of these differences, fear of crime among respondents at Tyndall and Moody was significantly correlated with all posited variables except household composition (Smith and Hill also found no association between fear and household composition).

Conclusion

In this research, an attempt was made to build on the existing literature by employing more elaborate measures of fear, victimization, and perceived crime seriousness following the guidance of Smith and Hill (1991a, 1991B), and to a lesser extent the work of LaGrange, et al. (1992), who informed the necessary link between perceived incivilities, perceived crime seriousness, and fear. The test of the model at two Air Force installations clarifies several specific needs for future research.

First, a great deal of informative data are lost by restricting the unit of analysis to the household. It is likely the respondent will indicate less fear than would be reported by the victim, unless the respondent was the victim. Along these same lines, learning more about the relationship between the victim and offender would be beneficial in measuring fear. For example, we know most violent crimes are committed by relatives or acquaintances (Smith and Hill, 1991a). What researchers don't know is how fear is affected.

Any knowledge of the victimization and offender could be extremely helpful in understanding the patterns of fear.

Second, the information presented in this study was informative and useful, but should have been expanded to include more bases. The size of the sample limited many comparisons that would be useful in the analysis. In cases of victimization, race, education, income, and rank, a larger sample could have provided more detailed information lost when categories were collapsed. It would also be interesting to learn how neighboring (off base) respondents compared with those on base.

The importance of the findings from this research are that victimization, individual social characteristics, perceived incivilities, and perceived crime seriousness influence one's fear of crime. While fear is generally influenced directly by these variables, victimization appears to influence fear both directly and indirectly through perceptions of crime seriousness. Simply reducing either victimization or perceptions of neighborhood problems alone, however, may not eliminate fear.

The Air Force installations studied here support this conclusion. While many community problems are controlled, fear of crime still exists among community residents. These findings do not support the belief that altering the social environment will decrease fear of crime. This analysis suggests that victimization, community problems, and

perceptions of both crime and community problems must be the targets of public policy. Without a combined approach to the problems, unaddressed issues will likely work against any possible gains.

NOTES

1. The lack of empirical accomplishment in fear of crime research is not unlike criminology as a discipline. Bernard (1990:325) explains, "Despite 20 years of extensive research, criminology has not made scientific progress in the sense of falsifying some theories and accumulating verified knowledge in the context of other theories."

2. The model and methodology used in this research are much like that presented by Smith and Hill (1991b). Their work informs our measurement issues for fear of crime, perceptions of crime seriousness, and victimization experience. This work deviates from the former by including race which they were unable to measure. They also conceptualized community incivility and perceptions of crime seriousness in the neighborhood together; yet, measured it by crimes. This is thought to lack face validity given that previous research associates community incivility with perceived and physical signs at the local level, not crime. Third, a distinction should be made between the two sampling designs. Smith and Hill surveyed holders of driver's license in the state of North Carolina; whereas, Air Force bases are studied in this analysis. The fourth and final difference involves the fear of crime measurement. Smith and Hill's fear

index has been expanded to distinguish between fear of crime on base and off base. This will permit two fear of crime indexes, one like that of Smith and Hill measuring respondents' perceptions in their neighborhoods (on base) and a second measuring perceptions associated with areas off base.

3. The low percentage of on base resident phone numbers identified is largely due to the limited number of dormitory residents having phones. A larger percentage of base housing residents have phones than do dorm residents. As a result, single member households make up only 15 percent of the sample.

4. It is important to note the measurement is household rather than the individual. This may create problems in interpretation of victimization data. For property crimes this should not pose a significant problem if one assumes an event is most likely perceived as a crime against the household. However, personal victimizations may be very different. For example, the victim may exhibit more fear than a respondent when the two are not the same. Also, there may be an instance when the offender is a member of the family, such as in spouse abuse.

5. The assumption that Moody and Tyndall are representative of all Air Force bases located in the Southeastern United States should be viewed with caution. The fact remains that only two bases have been included in this sample. A greater number of bases would need to be

sampled to increase the probability of representativeness.

6. A brief discussion of military pay and entitlements will help clarify this data. It is important to understand that military members normally refer to their annual income based solely on their base pay--the taxable amount of their salary. In addition, they also receive either a quarters allowance if they elect to live off base or may reside in government quarters on the installation (this is the case for respondents in this sample). In the latter case, both water and electricity are paid for by the military. Similarly, first-term (first four years) airmen living in the dormitories receive free meals in military dining facilities while everyone else receives an additional allowance for subsistence. These untaxable benefits combined with free medical and dental coverage can conservatively boost the annual household salary up between 4,000 and 6,000 dollars annually.

7. An asterisk following the variable number indicates items not studied in this analysis. Michael Trapp, another graduate student, and I worked together on this research project; however, our concepts and models differed. The Survey, only, contains our combined measures.

8. Due to the small n size within most cells, conclusions are tentative, at best.

APPENDIX A

DESCRIPTIVE DATA CONCERNING THE SAMPLE

Table 8. Means, Standard Deviation, Frequencies, and Valid Percentages Among Conceptual Variables in the Model for Respondents at Tyndall and Moody Air Force Bases (N=266)

	<u>Mean</u>	<u>Std Dev</u>	<u>Freq</u>	<u>Percent</u>
<u>Victimization</u>	.673	1.065	--	--
None	--	--	177	66.5
Single	--	--	30	11.3
Multiple	--	--	28	10.5
Serious	--	--	31	11.7
<u>Gender</u>	--	--	--	--
Male	--	--	157	59.7
Female	--	--	106	40.3
<u>Education</u>	.902	.583	--	--
High School	--	--	59	22.2
Some College	--	--	172	64.7
Bachelors	--	--	33	12.5
<u>Household Size</u>	3.208	1.302	--	--
One	--	--	39	14.8
Two	--	--	39	14.8
Three Plus	--	--	186	70.4
<u>Income</u>	.678	.625	--	--
Less 20,000	--	--	105	40.7
20 to 40,000	--	--	131	50.8
50,001 Plus	--	--	22	8.5
<u>Race</u>	--	--	--	--
White	--	--	197	74.3
Nonwhite	--	--	68	25.7
<u>Age</u>	.970	.696	--	--
18-25	--	--	68	25.7
26-35	--	--	137	51.7
Over 35	--	--	60	22.6
<u>Incivilities</u>	.569	.610	--	--
Low	--	--	126	49.4
Moderate	--	--	113	44.3
High	--	--	16	6.3
<u>Perceived Crime</u>	.759	.950	--	--
None	--	--	133	51.8
Low	--	--	74	28.8
Moderate	--	--	29	11.3
High	--	--	21	8.2
<u>Fear of Crime</u>	.635	.613	--	--
Low	--	--	116	43.6
Moderate	--	--	131	49.2
High	--	--	19	7.1

APPENDIX B

CODEBOOK

Variable Number	Variable Location	Description and Codes
1	1-4	Base/Unit Identification Number - Tyndall (Cases 1001 through 1200) - Moody (Cases 2001 through 2150)
Perceived Community Incivilities		
2	6	Have noisy neighbors 0) Strongly Disagree 1) Disagree 2) Agree 3) Strongly Agree 9) Missing Case
3	8	Neighbors keep homes and yards in good condition 0) Strongly Agree 1) Agree 2) Disagree 3) Strongly Disagree 9) Missing Case
4	10	Juvenile loitering, fighting, cursing, and similar activities a problem 0) Strongly Disagree 1) Disagree 2) Agree 3) Strongly Agree 9) Missing Case
5	12	Drugs and alcohol a problem 0) Strongly Disagree 1) Disagree 2) Agree 3) Strongly Agree 9) Missing Case

- | | | |
|---|----|-------------------------------|
| 6 | 14 | Neighbors have loud parties |
| | | 0) Strongly Disagree |
| | | 1) Disagree |
| | | 2) Agree |
| | | 3) Strongly Agree |
| | | 9) Missing Case |
| 7 | 16 | Vandalism a problem |
| | | 0) Strongly Disagree |
| | | 1) Disagree |
| | | 2) Agree |
| | | 3) Strongly Agree |
| | | 9) Missing Case |
| 8 | 18 | In general, conditions are... |
| | | 0) Getting Better |
| | | 1) Staying the Same |
| | | 2) Getting Worse |
| | | 9) Missing Case |

Perceived Crime Seriousness

- | | | |
|----|----|----------------------|
| 9 | 20 | Burglary |
| | | 0) Not a Problem |
| | | 1) Problem |
| | | 2) A Serious Problem |
| | | 9) Missing Case |
| 10 | 22 | Illegal Drugs |
| | | 0) Not a Problem |
| | | 1) Problem |
| | | 2) A Serious Problem |
| | | 9) Missing Case |
| 11 | 24 | Drunk Driving |
| | | 0) Not a Problem |
| | | 1) Problem |
| | | 2) A Serious Problem |
| | | 9) Missing Case |
| 12 | 26 | Rape |
| | | 0) Not a Problem |
| | | 1) Problem |
| | | 2) A Serious Problem |
| | | 9) Missing Case |

13	28	Assault
		0) Not a Problem
		1) Problem
		2) A Serious Problem
		9) Missing Case
14	30	Robbery
		0) Not a Problem
		1) Problem
		2) A Serious Problem
		9) Missing Case
15	32	Theft or Larceny
		0) Not a Problem
		1) Problem
		2) A Serious Problem
		9) Missing Case
16	34	Trespassing
		0) Not a Problem
		1) Problem
		2) A Serious Problem
		9) Missing Case
17	36	Vandalism
		0) Not a Problem
		1) Problem
		2) A Serious Problem
		9) Missing Case
18	38	Obscene or Threatening Phone Call
		0) Not a Problem
		1) Problem
		2) A Serious Problem
		9) Missing Case

Victimization Experience

19	40	Anyone attempt to damage, destroy, or attempt to destroy home or property
		0) No
		If yes, number incidents coded _____
		9) Missing Case

- | | | |
|----|----|---|
| 20 | 42 | Anyone steal or try to steal car, truck, or motorcycle belonging to household |
| | | 0) No |
| | | If yes, number incidents coded _____ |
| | | 9) Missing Case |
| 21 | 44 | Anything stolen from inside home |
| | | 0) No |
| | | If yes, number incidents coded _____ |
| | | 9) Missing Case |
| 22 | 46 | Anything stolen from outside home |
| | | 0) No |
| | | If yes, number incidents coded _____ |
| | | 9) Missing Case |
| 23 | 48 | Stolen parts from car or truck |
| | | 0) No |
| | | If yes, number incidents coded _____ |
| | | 9) Missing Case |
| 24 | 50 | Anything stolen while away from home |
| | | 0) No |
| | | If yes, number incidents coded _____ |
| | | 9) Missing Case |
| 25 | 52 | Purse or wallet snatched or pockets picked |
| | | 0) No |
| | | If yes, number incidents coded _____ |
| | | 9) Missing Case |
| 26 | 54 | Something stolen from inside car or truck |
| | | 0) No |
| | | If yes, number incidents coded _____ |
| | | 9) Missing Case |
| 27 | 56 | Anyone break into home or garage |
| | | 0) No |
| | | If yes, number incidents coded _____ |
| | | 9) Missing Case |

- | | | |
|----|----|--|
| 28 | 58 | Found door jimmied, lock forced, or other signs of attempted break-in |
| | | 0) No |
| | | If yes, number incidents coded _____ |
| | | 9) Missing Case |
| 29 | 60 | Anyone take or attempt to take something by force from household member |
| | | 0) No |
| | | If yes, number incidents coded _____ |
| | | 9) Missing Case |
| 30 | 62 | Anyone beat-up, attack, or hit member of household |
| | | 0) No |
| | | If yes, number incidents coded _____ |
| | | 9) Missing Case |
| 31 | 64 | Member of household knifed, shot at, or attacked with other weapon by anyone |
| | | 0) No |
| | | If yes, number incidents coded _____ |
| | | 9) Missing Case |
| 32 | 66 | Anyone threaten to beat-up or threaten household with weapon |
| | | 0) No |
| | | If yes, number incidents coded _____ |
| | | 9) Missing Case |
| 33 | 68 | Anyone rape or attempt to rape member of household |
| | | 0) No |
| | | If yes, number incidents coded _____ |
| | | 9) Missing Case |
| 34 | 70 | Member of household murdered |
| | | 0) No |
| | | If yes, number incidents coded _____ |
| | | 9) Missing Case |

Fear of Crime

35	72	When away, worry about safety of property
		0) Strongly Disagree
		1) Disagree
		2) Agree
		3) Strongly Agree
		9) Missing Case
36	74	On base, worry about personal safety
		0) Strongly Disagree
		1) Disagree
		2) Agree
		3) Strongly Agree
		9) Missing Case
37	76	Off base, worry about personal safety
		0) Strongly Disagree
		1) Disagree
		2) Agree
		3) Strongly Agree
		9) Missing Case
38	78	Own home, not safe from people who want to take property
		0) Strongly Disagree
		1) Disagree
		2) Agree
		3) Strongly Agree
		9) Missing Case
39	80	Some parts of county avoid during day
		0) Strongly Disagree
		1) Disagree
		2) Agree
		3) Strongly Agree
		9) Missing Case
40	82	Some parts of county avoid at night
		0) Strongly Disagree
		1) Disagree
		2) Agree
		3) Strongly Agree
		9) Missing Case

- | | | |
|----|----|---|
| 41 | 84 | Feel safe going anywhere on base,
daytime |
| | | 0) Strongly Agree
1) Agree
2) Disagree
3) Strongly Disagree
9) Missing Case |
| 42 | 86 | Feel safe going anywhere off base,
daytime |
| | | 0) Strongly Agree
1) Agree
2) Disagree
3) Strongly Disagree
9) Missing Case |
| 43 | 88 | Feel safe going anywhere on base,
night |
| | | 0) Strongly Agree
1) Agree
2) Disagree
3) Strongly Disagree
9) Missing Case |
| 44 | 90 | Feel safe going anywhere off base,
night |
| | | 0) Strongly Agree
1) Agree
2) Disagree
3) Strongly Disagree
9) Missing Case |
| 45 | 92 | Crime more serious than newspapers and
TV say |
| | | 0) Strongly Disagree
1) Disagree
2) Agree
3) Strongly Agree
9) Missing Case |

Social Background Characteristics

- | | | |
|----|----|---|
| 46 | 94 | Gender |
| | | 0) Male
1) Female
9) Missing Case |

47	96	Household's combined annual income
		0) Less than \$10,000
		1) \$10,001 to 20,000
		2) \$20,001 to 30,000
		3) \$30,001 to 40,000
		4) \$40,001 to 50,000
		5) \$50,001 to 60,000
		6) \$60,001 or more
		9) Missing Case
48	98	Education
		0) Some High School
		1) High School Diploma
		2) Some College
		3) 2-Year College Degree
		4) 4-Year College Degree
		5) Some Graduate School
		6) Master's Degree
		7) Post-Graduate Work
		9) Missing Case
49	100	Number in Household
		1) One
		2) Two
		3) Three
		4) Four
		5) Five or more
		9) Missing Case
50	102	Ethnic Origin
		0) White
		1) Black
		2) Hispanic
		3) Asian
		4) Other
		9) Missing Case
51	104	Age Category
		0) 18-25
		1) 26-35
		2) 36-45
		3) 46-55
		4) 56 or over
		9) Missing Case

52

106

Military Status

- 0) Enlisted
- 1) Officer
- 2) Both enlisted
- 3) Both officer
- 4) One enlisted, one officer
- 9) Missing Case

APPENDIX C

SURVEY

TESTING A GENERAL MODEL ON THE FEAR OF CRIME

Good morning/afternoon, I am (interviewer's name). I'm calling with permission from the installation commander, collecting research data concerning crime perceptions on Air Force bases. Your name will not be used. Do you have a few minutes to complete a survey?

First, do you live in military family housing or the dormitory?

Florida State University
Human Subjects Committee (IRB)
Assurance Number M1339
Expires: 21 September 1993

US Air Force SCN: 92-68
Expires: 30 April 1993

SURVEY**TESTING A GENERAL MODEL ON THE FEAR OF CRIME**

1. Base/Unit # _____
- Tyndall (1001 - 1100)
- Moody (2001 - 2100)

(Reference Note 7 concerning asterisks)

- 2.* Would you say that you watch television news?

- 0) Never
- 1) Rarely
- 2) Occasionally
- 3) Daily
- 9) Missing Case

- 3.* How often do you read stories about crime in the newspaper?

- 0) Never
- 1) Rarely
- 2) Occasionally
- 3) Daily
- 9) Missing Case

- 4.* How often do you watch one or more police/crime shows such as "COPS", "America's Most Wanted", or "FBI: The Untold Stories"?

- 0) Never
- 1) Rarely
- 2) Occasionally
- 3) Daily
- 9) Missing Case

- 5.* Do You know anyone in your neighborhood that has been the victim of a crime in the last twelve months?

- 0) No
- 1) Yes
- 9) Missing Case

6.* Has a member of your family, not living with you, been the victim of a violent crime in the last twelve months?

0) No 1) Yes 9) Missing Case

7.* Has a personal friend or co-worker been the victim of a violent crime in the last twelve months?

0) No 1) Yes 9) Missing Case

For the next two questions, would you say that you strongly agree, agree, don't know, disagree, or strongly disagree.

8.* I believe that I would be able to protect myself from an attacker?

0) Strongly Agree
1) Agree
2) Don't Know
3) Disagree
4) Strongly Disagree
9) Missing Case

9.* If attacked, I believe I would be able to escape?

0) Strongly Agree
1) Agree
2) Don't Know
3) Disagree
4) Strongly Disagree
9) Missing Case

10.* How Many neighbors would you say that you know on a first name basis?

0) Zero
1) One
2) Two
3) Three
4) Four
5) Five or More
9) Missing Case

11.* Would you rate the confidence you have of the police in your neighborhood as ...

0) Low, little confidence
1) Medium, some confidence
2) High, a lot of confidence
9) Missing Case

12.* In the next question, I am going to ask you to estimate your own risk of being the victim of a crime in the next twelve months on a scale of zero to five with zero being certain you will not be and five being certain to.

- 0) Certain not to
- 1) Not very likely
- 2) Somewhat likely
- 3) Likely to
- 4) Very Likely
- 5) Certain to
- 9) Missing Case

In the following section, please indicate whether you strongly disagree, disagree, agree, or strongly agree with the statement.

13. I have noisy neighbors.

- 0) Strongly Disagree
- 1) Disagree
- 2) Agree
- 3) Strongly Agree
- 9) Missing Case

14. Most of my neighbors keep their homes and yards in good condition.

***** Inverse Coded *****

- 3) Strongly Disagree
- 2) Disagree
- 1) Agree
- 0) Strongly Agree
- 9) Missing Case

15. Juvenile loitering, fighting, cursing, and similar activities are a problem in my neighborhood.

- 0) Strongly Disagree
- 1) Disagree
- 2) Agree
- 3) Strongly Agree
- 9) Missing Case

16. Drugs and alcohol are a problem in my neighborhood.

- 0) Strongly Disagree
- 1) Disagree
- 2) Agree
- 3) Strongly Agree
- 9) Missing Case

17. My neighbors frequently have loud parties.

- 0) Strongly Disagree
- 1) Disagree
- 2) Agree
- 3) Strongly Agree
- 9) Missing Case

18. Vandalism is a problem in my neighborhood.

- 0) Strongly Disagree
- 1) Disagree
- 2) Agree
- 3) Strongly Agree
- 9) Missing Case

19. In general, would you say that conditions in your neighborhood are...

- 0) Getting Better
- 1) Staying about the same
- 2) Getting Worse
- 9) Missing Case

Next I'll name ten crimes. For each, please indicate whether in your neighborhood, It is not a problem, It is a problem, or It is a serious problem.

20. Burglary

- 0) Not a Problem
- 1) Problem
- 2) A Serious Problem
- 9) Missing Case

21. Illegal Drugs

- 0) Not a Problem
- 1) Problem
- 2) A Serious Problem
- 9) Missing Case

22. Drunk Driving

- 0) Not a Problem
- 1) Problem
- 2) A Serious Problem
- 9) Missing Case

23. Rape

- 0) Not a Problem
- 1) Problem
- 2) A Serious Problem
- 9) Missing Case

24. Assault

- 0) Not a Problem
- 1) Problem
- 2) A Serious Problem
- 9) Missing Case

25. Robbery

- 0) Not a Problem
- 1) Problem
- 2) A Serious Problem
- 9) Missing Case

26. Theft or Larceny

- 0) Not a Problem
- 1) Problem
- 2) A Serious Problem
- 9) Missing Case

27. Trespassing

- 0) Not a Problem
- 1) Problem
- 2) A Serious Problem
- 9) Missing Case

28. Vandalism

- 0) Not a Problem
- 1) Problem
- 2) Serious Problem
- 9) Missing Case

29. Obscene or Threatening Phone Calls

- 0) Not a Problem
- 1) Problem
- 2) Serious Problem
- 9) Missing Case

In the following section, please indicate the number of times any of the following types of victimization have occurred to either you or a household member.

30. During the past 12 months, did anyone damage, destroy or attempt to destroy your home or any property around your home?
- 0) No
If yes, how many times? _____
- 9) Missing Case
31. During the past 12 months, did anyone steal or try to steal a car, truck, or motorcycle owned by you or other members of your household?
- 0) No
If yes, how many times? _____
- 9) Missing Case
32. During the past 12 months, did anyone steal anything from inside your home, such as a stereo, TV, jewelry, gun, or purse, etc.,?
- 0) No
If yes, how many times? _____
- 9) Missing Case
33. During the past 12 months, did anyone steal anything that is kept outside your home such as a bicycle, or a garden hose?
- 0) No
If yes, how many times? _____
- 9) Missing Case
34. During the past 12 months, did anyone steal parts attached to a car or truck owned by any member of your household, such as a battery, hubcaps, or a tapedeck?
- 0) No
If yes, how many times? _____
- 9) Missing Case
35. During the past 12 months, did you or any member of your household have anything stolen from them while they were away from home, for instance, at work, school, in a theater, in a restaurant, or while traveling?
- 0) No
If yes, how many times? _____
- 9) Missing Case

36. During the past 12 months, did you or any member of your household have a purse or wallet snatched or pockets picked?
- 0) No
If yes, how many times? _____
- 9) Missing Case
37. During the past 12 months, did you or any member of your household have something stolen from inside a car or truck, such as packages or clothing?
- 0) No
If yes, how many times? _____
- 9) Missing Case
38. During the past 12 months, did anyone break into or somehow illegally get into your house, apartment, garage, or another building on your property?
- 0) No
If yes, how many times? _____
- 9) Missing Case
39. During the past 12 months, did you find a door jimmied, a lock forced, or other signs of attempted break-in (do not include second home, business property, or camps)?
- 0) No
If yes, how many times? _____
- 9) Missing Case

During the past twelve months, were you or any member of your household a victim of any of the following violent crimes?

40. Did anyone take something or attempt to take something directly from you or any member of your household by using force, such as a stick-up, mugging, or threat?
- 0) No
If yes, how many times? _____ 9) Missing Case
41. Did anyone beat-up, attack, or hit you or any member of your household?
- 0) No
If yes, how many times? _____
- 9) Missing Case

42. Were you or any member of your household knifed, shot at, or attacked with some other weapon by anyone?
- 0) No
If yes, how many times? _____
- 9) Missing Case
43. Did anyone threaten to beat-up or threaten you or any member of your household with a knife, gun, or some other weapon?
- 0) No
If yes, how many times? _____
- 9) Missing Case
44. Did anyone rape or attempt to rape you or any member of your household?
- 0) No
If yes, how many times? _____
- 9) Missing Case
45. Were any members of your household murdered?
- 0) No
If yes, how many times? _____
- 9) Missing Case

Please indicate whether your Strongly Disagree, Disagree, Agree, or Strongly Agree with the following statements.

46. When I am away from home, I worry about the safety of my property.
- 0) Strongly Disagree
1) Disagree
2) Agree
3) Strongly Agree
9) Missing Case
47. On base, I worry a great deal about my personal safety from crime and criminals.
- 0) Strongly Disagree
1) Disagree
2) Agree
3) Strongly Agree
9) Missing Case

48. Off base, I worry a great deal about my personal safety from crime and criminals.

- 0) Strongly Disagree
- 1) Disagree
- 2) Agree
- 3) Strongly Agree
- 9) Missing Case

49. Even in my own home, I'm not safe from people who want to take what I have.

- 0) Strongly Disagree
- 1) Disagree
- 2) Agree
- 3) Strongly Agree
- 9) Missing Case

50. There are some parts of the county that I avoid during the day because of fear of crime.

- 0) Strongly Disagree
- 1) Disagree
- 2) Agree
- 3) Strongly Agree
- 9) Missing Case

51. There are some parts of the county that I avoid at night because of fear of crime.

- 0) Strongly Disagree
- 1) Disagree
- 2) Agree
- 3) Strongly Agree
- 9) Missing Case

***** Coding Change *****

52. I feel safe going anywhere on base in the daytime.

- 3) Strongly Disagree
- 2) Disagree
- 1) Agree
- 0) Strongly Agree
- 9) Missing Case

53. I feel safe going anywhere off base in the daytime.

- 3) Strongly Disagree
- 2) Disagree
- 1) Agree
- 0) Strongly Agree
- 9) Missing Case

54. I feel safe going anywhere on base after dark.

- 3) Strongly Disagree
- 2) Disagree
- 1) Agree
- 0) Strongly Agree
- 9) Missing Case

55. I feel safe going anywhere off base after dark.

- 3) Strongly Disagree
- 2) Disagree
- 1) Agree
- 0) Strongly Agree
- 9) Missing Case

***** Coding Change *****

56. Crime is more serious than the newspapers and TV say.

- 0) Strongly Disagree
- 1) Disagree
- 2) Agree
- 3) Strongly Agree
- 9) Missing Case

57. Indicate respondent's gender.

- 0) Male 1) Female 9) Missing Case

58. Please tell me which category best corresponds with your household's total annual income?

- 0) Less than 10,000
- 1) \$10,001 to 20,000
- 2) \$20,001 to 30,000
- 3) \$30,001 to 40,000
- 4) \$40,001 to 50,000
- 5) \$50,001 to 60,000
- 6) \$60,001 or more
- 9) Missing Case

59. Please select the category which best describes your education level?

- 0) Some High School
- 1) High School Diploma
- 2) Some College
- 3) 2-Year College Degree
- 4) 4-Year College Degree
- 5) Some Graduate School
- 6) Master's Degree
- 7) Post-Graduate Work 9) Missing Case

60. How many persons, including yourself, live in your household?

- 1) One
- 2) Two
- 3) Three
- 4) Four
- 5) Five or more
- 9) Missing Case

61. Which category best describes your ethnic origin?

- 0) White
- 1) Black
- 2) Hispanic
- 3) Asian
- 4) Other
- 9) Missing Case

62. As of your last birthday, would your age category be?

- 0) 18-25
- 1) 26-35
- 2) 36-45
- 3) 46-55
- 4) Over 55
- 9) Missing Case

63. Is the military member of your family?

- 0) Enlisted
- 1) Officer
- 2) Both members are military, both enlisted
- 3) Both members are military, both officer
- 4) Both members are military, one is enlisted, one is officer
- 9) Missing Case

That concludes the survey. Thank-you for your time and help in completing the questionnaire. Your participation means a lot to this research.

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